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Preface

The transitional labor market is a key instrument for developing new ways of defining and facilitating the necessary flexibility both for employees and for employers. One of the most remarkable and extensively used instruments on the Dutch labor market for more than twenty years is part-time work. This instrument has become such an important part of the Dutch labor market, that the Dutch economy now bears the nickname of the first part-time economy in the world. The very right to work fewer hours (or more) has been implemented in Dutch law. Possibly more illustrative of just how serious the Dutch are about part-time work is the Dutch legislation regarding non-discrimination of part-time workers. Part-time work is now an integral part of the Dutch labor system. Working part-time is preferred by two-thirds of Dutch working women and is catching on quickly with men, as, according to the OSA Labour Supply Panel, fifteen percent of Dutch working men are now employed in part-time jobs. Another twelve percent of Dutch men currently working full-time would like to work part-time. Part-time work could very well be the perfect solution to a better division of labor that will enable individuals to coordinate caring tasks, educational training and leisure while at the same time give them the opportunity to maintain a longer working career. But what are the long-term effects of working part-time on individual careers? This study poses the question whether part-time work has a negative effect on individual careers in terms of three crucial stratification variables: wage, function level, and socio-economic status. If this is the case, are workers then capable of compensating these negative effects upon returning to full-time careers or do these negative effects endure throughout one's career? The results show that there is still room for improvement. A history of part-time employment has a significant negative effect on the wage level for both men and women and a significant negative effect on the occupational status of women. It also increases the probability that one will work in a low function level job, and this effect is quite a bit stronger for women than for men. There is a clear gender bias in these negative career effects of part-time work, which together with the societal magnitude of these effects calls for a more prominent place on the agenda of labor market policy makers.

Prof.dr. Peter Ester, director OSA

Samenvatting

De snelheid waarmee nieuwe technologieën kennis doen verouderen, gekoppeld aan de demografische ontwikkelingen van vergrijzing en ontgroening, dwingen Europese landen hun arbeidsmarkten te hervormen. Het transitionele arbeidsmarktmodel, ontwikkeld door de Duitse hoogleraar Günther Schmid van het *Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin* wordt gezien als een blauwdruk om deze hervorming tot stand te brengen. Een transitionele arbeidsmarkt draait om flexibiliteit, onontbeerlijk voor de Nederlandse economie om schokken goed op te kunnen vangen als onderdeel van de *global economy*. De OSA heeft in haar meerjarenprogramma het model van de transitionele arbeidsmarkt opgenomen als conceptueel kader voor haar onderzoeksactiviteiten. Deze onderzoeksactiviteiten zijn erop gericht om de verschillende transities die individuen maken op, naar en van de arbeidsmarkt zorgvuldig in kaart te brengen en te verklaren. Het hier gepresenteerde onderzoek naar de effecten van deeltijdarbeid op de verdere loopbaan maakt hier deel van uit.

Nederland is uniek door de enorme vlucht die deeltijdarbeid heeft genomen in de afgelopen decennia. Nergens ter wereld wordt zo veel in deeltijd gewerkt als in Nederland en dat geldt niet alleen voor vrouwen maar ook voor mannen. De verwachting is dat het aantal deeltijdwerkers verder zal toenemen gezien de groeiende voorkeur voor kortere werkweken bij zowel mannen als vrouwen. Deze ontwikkeling biedt duidelijke voordelen voor het combineren van arbeid met andere domeinen in het leven zoals zorg, studie en vrije tijd. Daarom zou men kunnen stellen dat deeltijdarbeid één van de aangewezen instrumenten is om in een transitionele arbeidsmarkt de overgangen tussen deze verschillende domeinen te versoepelen. Voor mensen die niet meer in staat zijn om voltijds te werken kan deeltijdarbeid een uitkomst zijn om langer aan het werk te blijven. Deeltijdarbeid biedt een mogelijkheid om aan het arbeidsproces te participeren voor vrouwen die anders het combineren van arbeid met zorgtaken niet kunnen realiseren. Deeltijdarbeid geeft unieke mogelijkheden om arbeid en scholing te combineren in het kader van een leven lang leren, iets dat een nadrukkelijke plaats moet krijgen, wil Nederland meedoen in de kenniseconomie.

Het onderzoek naar deeltijdarbeid heeft zich tot nu toe voornamelijk gericht op de vergelijking van de arbeidsmarktpositie van deeltijd- met voltijdwerknemers op

een bepaald moment en is hoofdzakelijk op cross-sectionele databestanden uitgevoerd. Dit zijn momentopnamen en die kunnen geen inzichten verschaffen in eventuele blijvende (positieve of negatieve) effecten. Wanneer Nederland zo massaal kiest voor deeltijdwerk is het zeer belangrijk om te onderzoeken wat deze effecten zullen zijn voor de loopbaan van individuen. Om dit kennishiaat op te vullen heeft de OSA het longitudinaal bestand van het Sociaal en Economisch Panel (SEP) geanalyseerd. Met behulp van dit bestand worden individuen door de tijd gevolgd om te kunnen traceren welke gevolgen deeltijdervaring heeft op de verdere loopbaan en hoe sterk deze gevolgen zijn. De volgende vragen komen daarbij aan bod:

- in hoeverre heeft deeltijdervaring negatieve effecten op de loopbaan van individuen?
- zijn de eventuele negatieve effecten blijvend of slechts tijdelijk van aard?
- kunnen werknemers de eventuele initiële schade van deeltijdarbeid op hun carrière goedmaken wanneer zij weer voltijd gaan werken?

De effecten zijn gemeten met behulp van drie kernindicatoren voor sociale gelaagdheid, nl. functieniveau, sociaal-economische status en loon.

Een periode van deeltijdwerk heeft negatieve gevolgen voor het loon van mannen en vrouwen. Zelfs drie jaar na een succesvolle herintrede in een voltijd baan, zijn de negatieve effecten nog merkbaar. Hoewel het negatieve effect van deeltijdervaring sterker is voor mannen, laten zij een positieve loongroei zien. Dit betekent dat mannen kennelijk in staat zijn om na verloop van tijd de initiële loonachterstand weg te werken. Deze loongroei is sterker voor mannen die werkzaam zijn in de dienstensector. Bij vrouwen is er geen sprake van een inhaalslag in termen van loongroei als ze weer voltijds gaan werken. Dit betekent dat de gevolgen voor hen blijvend zijn, ongeacht de sector waarin zij werkzaam zijn.

Deeltijders en voltijders met een deeltijdervaring hebben een grotere kans om te werken in banen met lagere functieniveaus en deze kans is groter voor vrouwen dan voor mannen. Dit wijst op een structurele ongelijkheid tussen mannen en vrouwen op de arbeidsmarkt. Het feit dat deeltijd*ervaring* een sterker negatief effect voor vrouwen heeft, betekent dat mannen kennelijk beter in staat zijn dan vrouwen om hun loopbaan weer op "de rails" te krijgen als ze eenmaal weer voltijds werken. Het effect van opleiding laat zien dat hoe hoger de opleiding, hoe kleiner de kans om in een baan met een lagere functie terecht te komen. Dat is

natuurlijk geen onverwacht resultaat, maar dit effect is sterker voor mannen dan voor vrouwen. Mannen zijn blijkbaar beter in staat om hun investering in opleiding op de arbeidsmarkt te "verzilveren" dan vrouwen.

Zowel het werken in deeltijd als het hebben van deeltijdervaring hebben een negatief effect op de sociaal-economische status van vrouwelijke werknemers. De schade die vrouwen ondervinden aan hun loopbaan, kunnen ze niet herstellen in termen van hun sociaal-economische status, ook niet nadat zij voltijds zijn gaan werken. Hierbij treedt een interessant leeftijdseffect op. Voor zowel mannen als vrouwen heeft leeftijd een positief effect op de sociaal-economische status, maar dit effect houdt op een gegeven moment op te stijgen. Dat moment komt eerder voor vrouwen dan voor mannen. Mannen stijgen in sociaal-economische status – klimmen op de carrièreladder – tot ongeveer de leeftijd van 51 jaar; bij vrouwen is dat 44 jaar. Vrouwen hebben dus een kortere tijd om hun carrière te maken. Ook hier zijn de positieve effecten van investeringen in scholing sterker voor mannen dan voor vrouwen; wat wederom duidt op ongelijkheid tussen de seksen.

De resultaten laten zien dat ondanks de goede voorzieningen qua wetgeving, collectieve arbeidsovereenkomsten, enz., gelijke rechten niet zonder meer worden vertaald naar gelijke kansen. In dit onderzoek is steun gevonden voor de theorie van een gesegmenteerde arbeidsmarkt voor deeltijdwerk, waar de betere banen soepele transities van voltijd- naar deeltijdwerk en terug toelaten, en waar minder goede banen dit niet doen. Het is uiteraard mogelijk dat de negatieve effecten van deeltijdwerk op de loopbaan in termen van loonderving, verminderde sociaal-economische status en een lagere functieniveau niet opwegen tegen de positieve effecten van deeltijdwerk op individuen (denk, bijvoorbeeld, aan de extra vrije tijd). Dit zijn natuurlijk keuzes die gemaakt worden door individuen.

In de hervorming naar een meer transitionele arbeidsmarkt, steunt Nederland nadrukkelijk op deeltijdarbeid. De resultaten van dit onderzoek laten zien dat deeltijdarbeid blijvende, negatieve gevolgen heeft voor de individuele loopbanen en dat vrouwen hier meer hinder van hebben dan mannen die deeltijdervaring hebben. Dit is geen goed nieuws voor de talloze Nederlanders die de keuze voor deeltijdarbeid hebben gemaakt laat staan voor de talloze Nederlanders die dat overwegen.

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1 Introduction

The Netherlands holds a unique position within the global economy as having the first "part-time economy in the world" (Visser, 2002). The growth in part-time work is a phenomenon that thanks its origins to the increase in women's labor market participation (Salverda, 1998). Women in the Netherlands joined the labor force on a part-time basis. This development resulted in a *part-time prerogative* and has since its introduction been institutionalized by means of legislative reforms, the so-called right to work more or fewer hours per week. Dutch women do choose to work part-time. Two-thirds of all working women in the Netherlands has a part-time job of 12 to 34 hours a week.[1] At the same time, a new, slower growing development is taking place: a minority of Dutch men is opting for part-time work. Results of the Institute for Labour Studies' (OSA) 2002 Labor Supply Survey show that 28 percent of working men would prefer a part-time position. The Netherlands breaks all records as a part-time working nation (see Table 1.1) and there is still potential for growth. The fact that it is so widely accepted and even preferred by a majority of the working women and a growing minority of men (Fouarge and Baaijens, 2003), has created a basis for further institutionalization. But this part-time prerogative (the right to work fewer hours) may turn out to be a Pandora's box.

Do we really know what the long-term effects of part-time work will be on the Dutch labor market or even on the Dutch economy? Most of our social insurance schemes are based on full-time participation and are thus paid out as a proportion of the whole for part-time workers. Fewer working hours translates into less income and less consumptive strength. This will have consequences for the Dutch economy. Regarding working hours, the Dutch already effectively work fewer hours than for instance the Americans simply due to the difference in the number of holidays, amount of sick leave, etc. Figure 1.1 is based on statistics from the OECD and illustrates the trend in annual working hours between 1990 and 2002. With the Dutch goal of taking a lead position in Europe's competition on the knowledge economy with the USA, we will have to at least take into account the great discrepancy in the average number of working hours per year. A higher level of productivity can only compensate for part but not all of this difference.

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[1] http://www.cbs.nl/nl/cijfers/statline/index.htm

Table 1.1: Usual weekly volume of hours worked by employed1 men and women by country, 2000

countries, ranked by men's average hours	average for employed men	average for employed women	average gender gap in working hours for the employed[4]
Ireland	44.7	33.4	11.3
Greece	44.6	39.6	5.0
Portugal	43.8	38.7	5.1
UK	42.9	29.8	13.1
Finland	42.5	39.0	3.5
Spain	42.3	36.2	6.1
Austria	42.1	36.0	6.1
Norway[2]	41.8	32.5	9.3
Belgium	41.4	32.9	8.5
Germany	41.2	32.2	9.0
Italy	41.2	35.1	6.1
France	40.9	35.0	5.9
Sweden	40.0	35.2	4.8
Denmark	38.7	33.3	5.4
Netherlands	36.9	25.2	11.7
EU 15[3]	41.6	33.2	8.4

Note:

1. Main job, including paid and unpaid over-time.

2. Data for Norway are from *Employment Options Survey 1998*

3. Luxembourg is not shown separately due to sample size limits, but is included in the overall EU15 figure.

4. Employed men's average usual weekly working hours minus employed women's average usual weekly working hours.

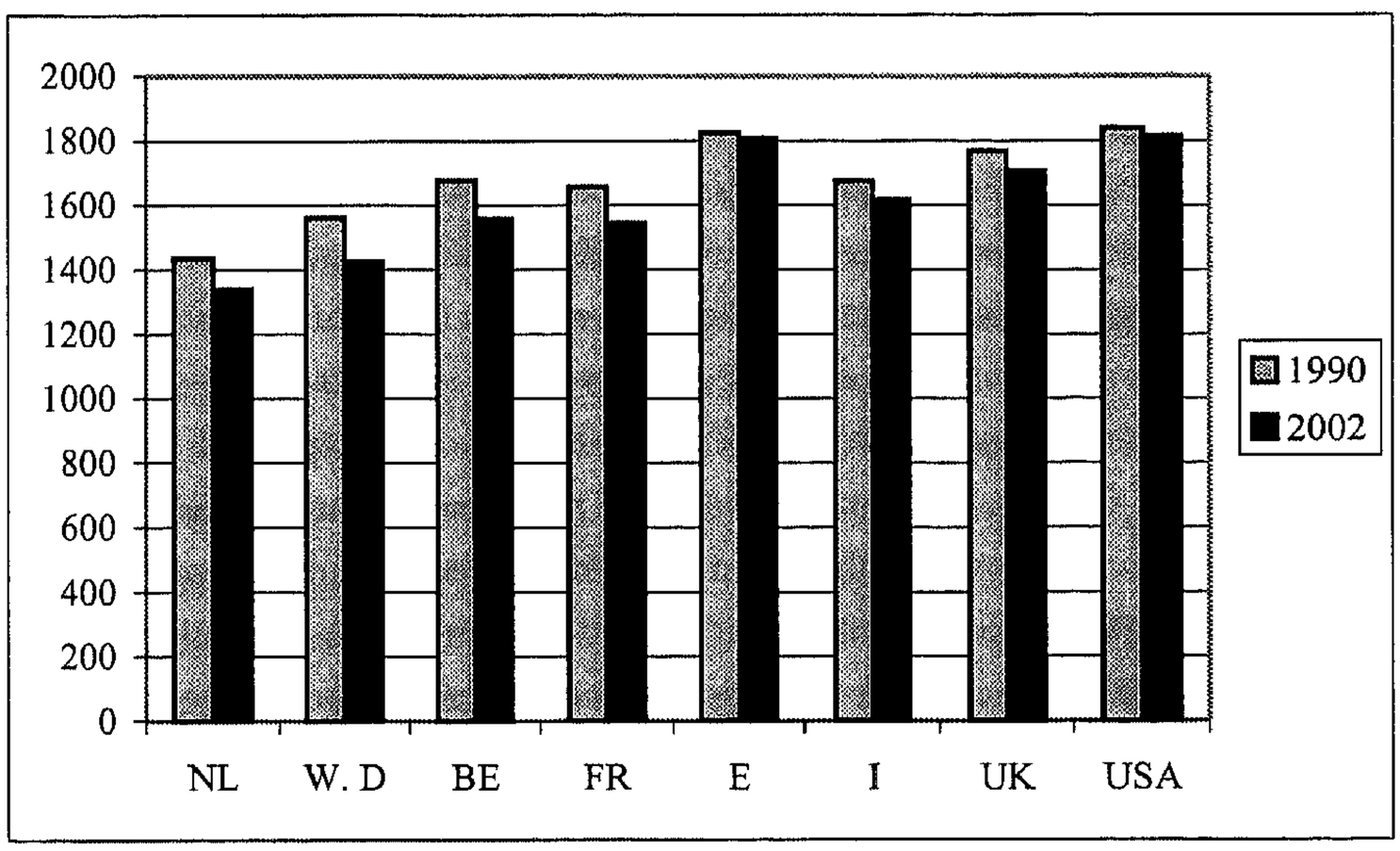
Source: European Working Conditions Survey, 2000.

In moving towards a transitional labor market, flexibility is a key issue and part-time work provides flexibility on all levels. On the macro-level, part-time work provides a buffer for growth and reduction of labor necessary to adapt to different economic conditions. On the meso-level, part-time work provides an important source of dynamic flexibility for many sectors of industry (see Friesen, 1997). The service sector is a good example of the additional flexibility attained through the use of call centers, where neither the length of the shift nor the geographic locality of the worker form a barrier to work. The healthcare industry has traditionally used 24-hour shift-work, much of which is done by women working part-time. However, the amount of flexibility won on the labor market due to part-time work is questionable. Women working part-time with young children are generally *not* flexible workers, with the constraints of daycare opening hours, school schedules and holidays (Visser et al., 2004). This places all kinds of restrictions on the internal scheduling of personnel. On the micro-level, it provides flexibility within households for combining paid labor and caring tasks. On the transitional labor

market, Dutch men and women will face many new challenges and demands in the future, not the least of which is a longer working career. Facilities are needed to ensure that employees will be able to realize longer working careers.

Between 1990 and 2002, the USA shows a decrease of 22 total hours worked per year per person (Figure 1.1). For the same period, the Netherlands shows a decrease of 97 hours. Even in comparison to our European neighbors, the average total number of hours worked on an annual basis is less in the Netherlands. The growth in participation of women in the labor force increased the number of participants and the total number of working hours in the Dutch economy, while decreasing the average number of working hours per participant.

Figure 1.1: Average annual hours worked per person in employment[2]



Source: OECD

Nevertheless, additional labor participation is necessary to generate the revenue for the social insurance system. On the macro-level, the increased level of labor participation accounted for most of the economic growth of the nineties. But the

[2] The concept used is the total number of hours worked over the year divided by the average number of people in employment. The data are intended for comparisons of trends over time; they are unsuitable for comparisons of the level of average annual hours of work for a given year, because of differences in their sources. Part-time workers are covered as well as full-time (OECD, 2003).

effective number of working hours per person in the Netherlands remains under the European average and well under the average in the USA.

We are now in a position to reflect on a history of more than 20 years experience with part-time work in the Netherlands. This study is concerned with the *micro-level* i.e. the negative effects that part-time work may have for the individual career. We know from several studies that part-time work has negative effects on income, labor market position in terms of security, upward mobility, etc. Previous research shows that part-time jobs pay less on average, are lower in function and have less status than full-time jobs (Tam, 1997; Visser, 1999; Van der Lippe, 1993; De Beer, 1996). These studies have almost all been a direct comparison of part-time work with full-time work. But what is the effect of a period of part-time work on one's career? Are negative effects permanent, or are employees (mostly women) capable of overcoming a negative impact of a period of part-time work when rejoining the labor force as full-time workers. In this study, we want to look specifically at the effects of a history of part-time work on (upward) mobility in careers. To do this, we will use three job related variables: income, function level and socio-economic status. The question is, whether there are lasting negative effects for persons with a history of part-time work in terms of income, function level and socio-economic status? And, are there, e.g., differences in the effects of part-time work on careers that can be explained by the industry sector in which a person works? One could assume for instance that in sectors where more women are employed and thus where there is more part-time employment, that any negative effect is weaker than in sectors where part-time work is a less frequent phenomenon. The same can be expected in sectors of the labor market that frequently or structurally experience a shortage of labor. Employers in these sectors would more likely have positive attitudes towards accommodating, facilitating and rewarding part-time workers.

Although researchers in the past have been able to assess the negative impact that part-time work has in terms of wage, function level and socio-economic status, these studies have not looked into whether this is a permanent setback to one's career. In other words, if this is only a transitory part of the career path, are workers (indeed mostly women) capable of regaining their human capital lost through a period of part-time work? In order to establish and isolate this effect, we will follow individuals through time by using data from the Dutch Socio-Economic Panel (SEP; see Section 3.2). The length of an average career is

somewhere between 30 and 45 years, and the panel data available covers a time span of only 18 years. We are also limited by the kind of information available in the data, and only analyze data from the waves between 1990 and 2001. We analyze four and six-year 'micro-careers'. In chapter three, we limit our analyses to those individuals working full-time for the last three years of their micro-career. We count the number of years these individuals have been working part-time in the first three years of their 'micro-career'. In this way, we can isolate the effect of part-time work by comparing this group to the group that has exclusively worked full-time. Subsequently, because we realize that not everyone returns to full-time work after a period working part-time, a less restrictive analysis is done in Chapter four including those persons having only worked part-time during the micro-career period. By using career periods to compare the effect of part-time work, we hope to establish a more realistic view of part-time work as experienced on the Dutch labor market. If there are lasting negative effects on careers, no matter how small, the effect is magnified simply due to the magnitude of part-time work in Dutch society and its growth potential. If it is indeed true that part-time work generates systematic negative micro-effects on personal career advancement than this poses a major social problem at the aggregate level, which calls for strategic labor market policy responses. In this sense this study aims at assessing whether negative individual impacts of part-time work are of such a nature that a strategic policy response is imperative to alleviate the middle and long-term effects for Dutch society.

The structure of this report is as follows. Chapter two provides both a brief history of the part-time work phenomenon in the Netherlands as well as an overview of its current development. It also provides a brief description of part-time work as an instrument on the transitional labor market. Chapter three is an exploration of the research population both in terms of the career periods as well as the explanatory and dependent variables (using bivariate analyses). Chapter four elaborates the analysis further using multivariate techniques. In the last chapter, we will present our findings and on their basis make suggestions for policy use.

2 Part-time work and the transitional labor market

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we first sketch the development of part-time work in the Netherlands (Section 2.1). The next section (2.2) is an overview of the legislation that has been implemented concerning part-time work. Section 2.3 provides an overview of the amount and intensity of part-time work on the Dutch labor market. Section 2.4 explains the place of part-time work as an instrument within the transitional labor market model as developed by Günther Schmid. Section 2.5 takes a closer look at previous research into part-time work.

2.2 The history of part-time work in the Netherlands

"Measure not the work until the day's out and the labor done".[3] A division of labor where women are responsible for running the home and caring for the children and men are the wage earners has characterized the development of western societies (Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002). This typical western division of labor had been the model for the breadwinners' society in the Netherlands until the beginning of the 1980s (Bruyn-Hundt, 1988; Baaijens *et al.*, 2004; Van der Lippe, 1993). The modus household in Dutch society consisted of a man who (went to) work and a woman that stayed at home with the children. This changed when, in the early 1980s women in the Netherlands re-entered the labor market, for the most part, in part-time jobs. It was only at this time, that the Netherlands surpassed Sweden, Denmark and the UK in its percentage of part-time workers in the labor force (OECD, 2003). Part-time work has been an excellent means for women to rejoin the labor market, dismissing their more traditional non-participation in paid labor after having children. It looked for a while as though part-time work would fill the function of a stepping-stone or bridge for women to access the labor market but things changed. In the early 1990s, most women did not leave the labor market at all after having children. Where women in the past achieved social recognition almost exclusively by taking care of the home and bringing up the children, having paid work increased in acceptance as one of the instruments for achieving social recognition. The more prestigious the job, or the

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[3] Elizabeth Barrett Browning (1806 - 1861)

higher the income, the more status and thus the more socially appreciated the individual (Baaijens *et al.*, 2004). Considering this aspect, one would expect that part-time work would eventually have served its purpose and disappear from the labor market. However, Dutch women in general, prefer working part-time to having full-time jobs. And Dutch women still widely prefer to take up at least part of the caring for young children rather than placing them full-time in daycare (Esveldt *et al.*, 2001). The OSA Labour Supply Panel shows that in 2002, only 24 percent of the women participating on the Dutch labor market work full-time. Working time preferences from the same year show that 81 percent of the working women is satisfied with the number of hours she works. This desire to work part-time has also been increasing for men (Fouarge and Baaijens, 2003). In that same year, 16 percent of the men working in the Netherlands, had a part-time job. Another 15 percent stated that he would prefer to work fewer hours. In this sense, part-time work, a more or less spontaneously occurring phenomenon on the Dutch labor market, has evolved to become a widely practiced and generally accepted labor market instrument.

2.3 Institutional changes regarding part-time work

The initial attempts by government to better facilitate part-time work met with opposition from the labor unions. Dutch labor is highly regulated, with some 80-85 percent of all Dutch workers covered by collective agreements. The government coalition in the mid-1970s had a labor majority and this party saw part-time work as a facilitator for the emancipation of women. It was also promoted as a way to employ more people, which was a key issue at the time because the youth unemployment rate was extremely high, and continued to be so through the first half of the 1980s (Visser *et al.*, 2004). The government rewarded employers with subsidies for dividing one job into two. This was the beginning of 'job-sharing' as a government facilitated instrument on the Dutch labor market. The unions felt that general working time reduction was a better tool to create and distribute labor and part-time work undermined this higher goal (Van Klaveren en Tijdens, 1998).

The Wassenaar agreement of November 1982, finally brought all parties together: the unions, employers and government. Wage moderation, working time reduction, early retirement and part-time work were all agreed upon as part of an integral labor market agreement that would restore the health and vitality of the

Dutch economy. The Dutch economy picked up speed and flourished again by the end of the 1980s. This return of economic growth tempered the need for working time reductions, and was replaced with a new form of work redistribution: part-time work (CPB, 1991). The Foundation of Labor (StAr) made recommendations for collective agreements with guidelines regarding part-time work. A careful first step towards more equality for part-timers was made in 1992, by removing the so-called 1/3 criterion from the Minimum Wage and Minimum Vacation Pay Act[4]. In 1996, the Prohibition of Discrimination by Working Hours Act became effective. The Committee for Equal Treatment monitors all cases for discrimination, with respect to sex, race or (since 1996) one's part-time position. This is a unique example of just how important part-time work is to Dutch society. A third piece of legislation, the Adjustment of Working Hours Act (WAA) that came into effect in July 2000, makes explicit the right to the adjustment of working hours. This is not particular to part-time work, as the adjustment can be to working either more hours or less.

2.4 Who works part-time?

Part-time jobs accounted for at least half of the total employment growth over the past decade in 50 percent of all OECD countries, and for a considerable share of new jobs in quite a few more (OECD, 2003). Not one of these countries comes close to the part-time wonder of the Netherlands. According to Statistics Netherlands, there was an increase in the percentage of individuals working part-time from 25 to 35 percent between 1992 and 2002. Over the same period, the number of part-time jobs increased by 150 percent (see Figure 2.1). The vast majority of part-time workers are women. More than half of the female working population in 1992 had a part-time job consisting of 12 to 34 hours per week. This share increased to two-thirds of all working women in 2002. The results of the OSA Labour Supply Panel in the same year showed that only 24 percent of the women that work, have full-time positions. The reason for this difference is that the Statistics Netherlands only registers part-time jobs of 12 hours or more. Although there has been a slight increase in the number of men working part-time during the same period, it has been more modest. The share of part-timers within the male working population grew from seven percent in 1992 to 11 percent in

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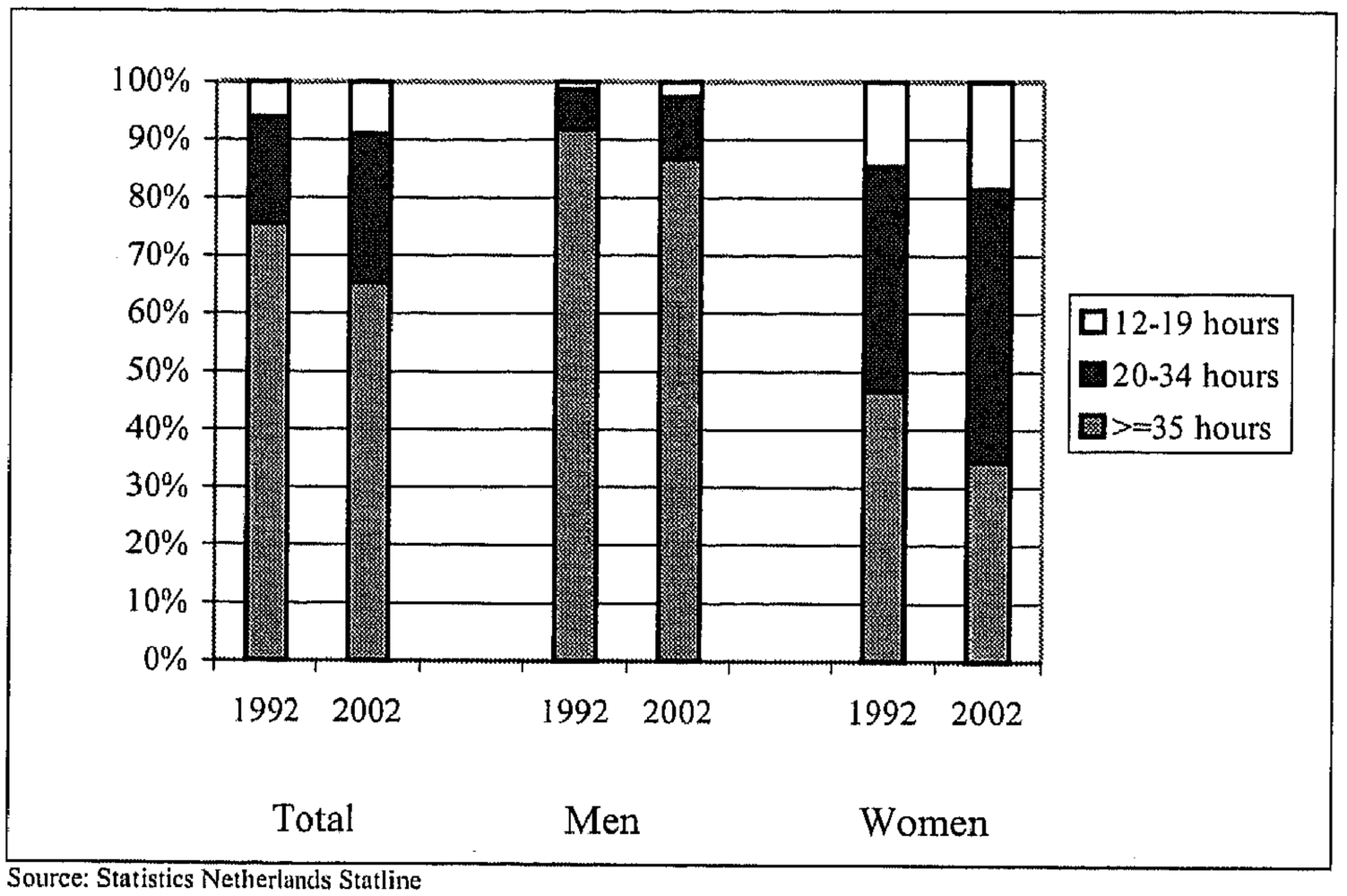
[4] Stb. 1992, 536 *Act of 24 September 1992, to change the minimum wage and minimum vacation pay in accordance with the rights of workers who as a rule work no more than one third of the normal working week.*

2002. The results of the OSA Labour Supply Panel, where part-time jobs with fewer hours than 12 per week are included, show that 15 percent of the working men have part-time jobs.

Figure 2.1: Weekly working hours by sex 1992–2002



Source: Statistics Netherlands Statline

2.5 Transitional labor market theory

There has been some speculation about the potential of the part-time model as a new form of 'full employment' over the life cycle, within the framework of a transitional labor market (Rogowski and Wilthagen, 2002; Schmid and Gazier, 2002). Schmid realizes that this original definition of full employment is no longer realistic and that the traditional 40-hour a week job will no longer be attainable for all[5]. However, a part-time model seems indeed to be within reach, and certainly, an instrument to keep people that otherwise would be non-participants, actively participating on the labor market for a longer period of time. In this manner, part-time work takes up a key position for the evolution towards a

[5] The European average unemployment rate for the period 1990-2000 was nine percent or more than 17 million EU citizens of working age that are not actively participating on the labor market. (OECD, 2003).

transitional labor market. It can be used to accommodate longer working careers, something essential due to the current demographic developments in Europe. Part-time work also allows for working men and women to better combine paid labor and caring tasks. It can be used as an instrument to alleviate or even deter burnout through working time reduction. It can be helpful in reintegration of sick or handicapped workers. It can be used to combine paid labor with training and education enabling lifelong learning. We have, up to now, referred mainly to women working part-time, simply because it has, in its short tradition been for the most part women who are working in part-time jobs. But with future perspectives of longer working careers and lifelong learning coupled with the demographic influences of lower fertility and an ageing society, part-time work is an excellent option for keeping just about everybody working.

Günther Schmid (1998) introduced his theory of transitional labor markets as a new European employment strategy. He sees a transitional labor market providing flexibility capable of serving as a buffer, expanding in times of economic recession and contracting during periods of economic growth. Within this strategy lie traces of the normative concept of 'full employment' as a greater good that would economically emancipate individuals, but beyond that, participation on the labor market is seen by Schmid as an essential condition for social integration. A transitional labor market can be an "essential part of the solution in complementing the required growth based on technological innovations and new commodity or service markets," (Schmid, 1998). Schmid identifies two fundamental processes taking place: globalization and a micro-level differentiation. He feels that the second process is even more important for re-defining our labor markets. This differentiation is integrally coupled with life course processes. [6] Individuals are making choices around work and family life that no longer fit the classic biographies. This creates new challenges for combining work and family life.

Europe faces a demographic deficit and the Netherlands is no exception to this problem. The average life expectancy in the Netherlands has increased for men

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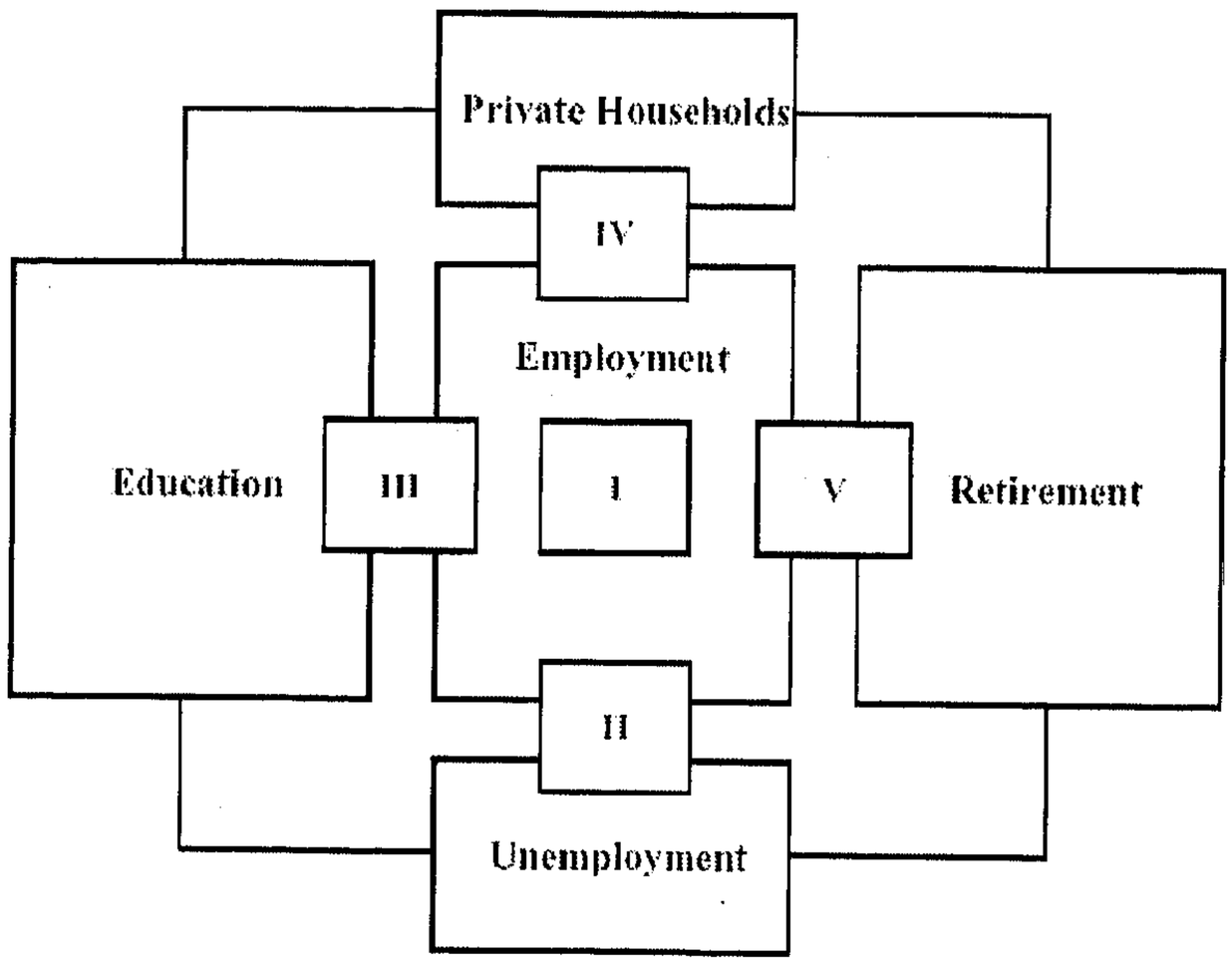
[6] Within a life course framework, events or transitions within one's life occur following a certain structure based on three time dimensions: *biographical time* or the chronological order of personal events, *historical time* or how historical events, opportunities and impediments affect one's chances and *social time* or how society places the individual according to the age group in which he or she belongs. The basis of the life course approach is in the interaction of these three time dimensions (Dykstra and Van Wissen, 1999).

from 70 years in 1950 to 75,5 years in 2000. For women over the same time span this has increased from 72,6 in 1950 to 80,6 in 2000 (Statistics Netherlands). We are living longer and will need to work longer.[7] Longer working careers will need facilities embedded in our everyday lives allowing for smooth transitions to, within and from the labor market in accordance with the domains of caring tasks, leisure time and education. Figure 2.2 is Schmid's model of the transitional labor market showing the separate domains that require arrangements to expedite smooth transitions.

Figure 2.2: Transitional Labor Market Model



Source: Schmid, 1998

A transitional labor market is a fluid model that allows for supple transitions between different life realms: caring tasks, leisure time, labor participation and study or career training. One of the key features in a transitional labor market is the strategy of combining working time reduction with lifelong learning. The classic concept of working time reduction lost its initial impulse of the seventies

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[7] In the Netherlands the average age for retiring from the labor market has decreased between 1950 and 1995 from 66,4 to 58,8 years of age (NIDI, 2003). This means that the average period of active participation on the labor market has decreased from three-fourths of our lives to approximately one half over the last one hundred years.

and eighties in the Netherlands, when the economy regained its strength and resulted in labor shortages by the mid-nineties. [8] Most of these labor shortages were assuaged by the introduction of women, working part-time on the Dutch labor market, a different form of working time reduction with a very different background. And yet, the result is quite similar. More people are working and the average number of hours worked has been reduced. Lifelong learning is essential because markets are more rapidly apt to change through new innovative technologies and their applications. It has become apparent that virtually no area of expertise or skills is immune to the updates of information technology. Inherent in this conclusion is the notion that initial education will have to be additionally supplemented and updated on a continual basis. Here again, part-time workers may be neglected. Costly investments in training of personnel are more likely to be done for full-time workers simply because the yield in terms of percentage is higher.[9] Schmid stresses the importance of participation on the labor market as a key to integration. The more individuals participating, the more affordable the system and the higher the quality of life. In order to achieve a more flexible labor market, without the sensitivity to economic shocks, buffers of non-participatory transitions will need to be institutionalized. This will also be necessary for businesses in order to retract during economic dips without losing their competitive abilities, which would very much be the case if they have to dismiss skilled personnel during slower periods, resulting in personnel shortages the moment the economic cycle picks up again.

2.6 Negative effects of working part-time

Original concepts of part-time work show a division of the labor market, where primary jobs (or good jobs) are higher function, long or permanent contract and full-time. Secondary jobs (bad jobs) are lower function, short contract and part-time. Tilly (1996) makes a further distinction between secondary part-time jobs and retention part-time jobs. The first refers to low-level jobs that in every way are more poorly compensated than their full-time counterparts. Retention part-

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[8] Economic growth can be realized by a more efficient method of working or by putting more people to work. The Netherlands has since the middle of the eighties, relied heavily on this second option. The growth in labor intensity during this period is simply a mirror image of the low growth rate of the labor productivity (Kleinknecht and Dekker, 2004).

[9] The European Council has requested EU members to "give higher priority to lifelong learning as a basic component of the European social model, by encouraging agreements between the social partners on innovation and lifelong learning; by exploiting the complementarity between lifelong learning and adaptability through flexible management of working time" (EC, 2000).

time jobs are prime jobs for skilled workers and therefore enumerated much the same as full-time workers. In this manner, the original poor reputation of the part-time job has been refined. The conception of part-time work may have improved, but research shows that the enumeration remains behind that of full-time workers. Research by Bardasi and Gornick (2000) shows a range from 8–22 percent part-time wage penalties (meaning that part-time workers earned that much less than their full-time colleagues found in five countries using cross-nationally comparable data from the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS).[10] Hu and Tijdens (2003) find relatively large wage penalties for part-time workers in Great Britain but no substantial wage gap in the Netherlands using data from the European Community Household Panel. In their research, they compared longer part-time jobs (22–29 hours per week) with full-time (30 hours and more). Fagan and Rubery (1996) called for a better comparative classification of part-time work and suggested that further study should not be to compare full-timers with part-timers but to analyze them together. These studies have all be on cross-sectional data and provide no answers for the long-term dynamics. Blackwell (2001) finds some evidence for 'occupational recovery' in her longitudinal research when women return to full-time work. But this cautious conclusion is based on the assumption that many women deviate from career paths and take low-level part-time jobs during periods of child rearing. Dekker et al. (2000) use the Dutch Socio-Economic Panel (SEP) data, for the period 1985 to 1994, to distinguish wage differentials. In their model, the effects of part-time work, differentiated in short and long part-time on wage shows a modest positive effect on the hourly wage of full-time working women.

Thus, there is some evidence for negative effects of working part-time. However, the issue is whether these effects have a more lasting impact on personal careers in terms of income, function level and occupational status. Our research as outlined in the introduction explicitly aims to build on these findings, using SEP data from 1990 up through 2001 and measuring the upward mobility by not only wage but function level and socio-economic status as well. In addition, the growth in income and socio-economic status is measured which is an indicator of the ability to recuperate from the initial set-back experienced during the period of part-time employment.

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[10] Canada, Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

3 Full-time employees with a history of part-time employment: who are they?

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is an exploration of the data using bivariate analyses to attain insight into the characteristics of full-time employees with a history of part-time employment. In Section 3.2, we give a brief description of the data and methodology used. In Section 3.3, we then go on to describe the panel population using personal characteristics such as sex, age and highest level of educational attainment. In the last section, we investigate the effect that having worked part-time has on wage, socio-economic status and function level. The analyses are merely descriptive for the multivariate analyses will not be discussed until the next chapter.

3.2 Data

The data used for this research are from the Dutch Socio-Economic Panel (SEP). The panel was started by Statistics Netherlands in 1984. In each wave, approximately 13,000 persons (5,000 households) are interviewed. All household members aged 16 years and older are interviewed about their socio-economic situation, their education, labor market participation, income, assets and debts. Preferably the head of the household provides the information regarding the living conditions, the ownership of durable goods, the perception of the household's financial situation, etc. Information on sex, date of birth, marital status, nationality and position in the household is available for all household members, including those younger than 16 years of age. Since 1990, the survey is polled once a year in the period April/May (before that, there were two waves each year). In our analyses, we only use the waves 1990 through 2001, because these twelve waves contain comparable information on wages. All analyses in this chapter have been weighted using the appropriate cross-sectional and longitudinal weights provided with the data. Only persons of working age (16 through 64 years) are included in the analyses.[11]

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[11] Note that the models estimated in Chapter 4 also have been estimated for respondents age 25-55 only, but that this made no difference for the parameters of interest.

There are a few reservations concerning the data that should be stated. The first of which is the decrease in the panel population during the period used in our research, 1990 through 2001. This, in combination with the low numbers of working women throughout the entire panel history, and the small numbers of men with a history of part-time work, are grounds for caution when drawing conclusions upon which strategic policy may be based.

Micro-career

In this chapter, we intend to assess whether part-time employment has a lasting effect on people's career, after re-entry in full-time employment. In the next chapter, we will also go more broadly into the effects of part-time employment on a person's career. With our data, it is impossible to follow respondents throughout their entire career, as the average career has a length of 30 (in the case of early retirement) to 40 years. Therefore, we designed a micro-career model to characterize a section of a person's career. This was constructed by following those respondents who were in the panel for a minimum of six consecutive years, during which they were active participants on the labor market. In order to establish the effects of a period of part-time work (defined as working at most 34 hours a week) on the career as compared to a career made up only of full-time work, we further stipulated that the last three years of the career must have been working full-time. The first three years can be any variation of part-time and or full-time work (see Figure 3.1). Basically, we count the number of years a full-time working person in the last three years of our time window has worked part-time in the first three years. With our data, we can define such a time window for the period 1990–1995, 1991–1996, … , 1996–2001.

Up to now, research on the effects of part-time work has almost exclusively been done by comparing part-timers to full-timers. By investigating the six-year micro-career periods, we can see how a period of part-time work affects the career (i.e., the function level, socio-economic status and hourly income) after a successful re-entry in full-time employment has taken place.

Figure 3.1: Employment pattern of the sample under scrutiny

	Year					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Employment status	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time

Socio-economic status, function level, and hourly wage

The effect of part-time employment upon a person's career is measured using three variables: the socio-economic status, the function level and the hourly wage rate.

The first variable used to measure the effect of a period of part-time work on careers is *socio-economic status*. This variable is constructed by recoding the Dutch occupational codes, using the recoding schemes from Ganzeboom et al. (1992) into ISEI status scores running from 16 (low) to 90 (high). ISEI scores are the weighted averages of standardized measures of the income and education of incumbents of each occupation.

The second variable used is the *function level*. The function level is a classification by which occupations are ordered according to the estimated period needed to become competent in the activities required for the occupation (Huijgen et al., 1980). The function level is a recode of the Dutch occupational codes. The function level variable ranges from 1 (low) to 7 (high). The function level is based on the most appropriate education and the length of the professional experience required for the function.

The last indicator is the *gross hourly wage rate*. In the SEP, retrospective information on the annual gross wage in the year prior to interview is available. The data also include retrospective information on the number of months worked and information on the number of hours currently worked. We used this information to derive gross hourly wages. The use of retrospective information implies that there is no wage information for the last wave of the panel (2001). Wages are expressed in euros and were corrected for price inflation (base year 2001).

In the analyses in this chapter, socio-economic status, function level and hourly wage rate are all measured in the last year of the micro-career. At that point, all

employees have been working at least three years full-time, but they do differ with respect to their part-time experience in the first three years. In Chapter 4, we extend the analyses to include all working individuals examining their history of participation in part-time jobs.

3.3 Characteristics of the sample population

Table 3.1 shows the number of respondents for each of the seven career periods that satisfy the selection criteria. Per period, there are between 1,380 and 1,857 respondents that qualify for selection. Each career period shows 90 percent or more of the respondents to have worked full-time throughout the six-year micro-career. For the respondents with a history of part-time work before making the transition to full-time, we can see that the majority worked part-time for only one year prior to making the transition to a full-time career. This percentage is more or less stable over the years with a minor increase in the last period. Fewer people worked two or three years part-time before making the transition to a full-time job.

Table 3.1: Overview of part-time employment history of persons working full-time[1] in percentages

	90–95	91–96	92–97	93–98	94–99	95–00	96–01
Part-time history:							
none	90.6	90.8	91.2	92.2	91.2	90.3	89.9
one year	4.9	4.0	4.9	4.0	4.8	4.0	5.8
two years	2.5	2.9	2.2	2.1	1.9	3.2	3.5
three years	2.0	2.3	1.7	1.7	2.1	2.5	0.8
N	1,797	1,795	1,857	1,708	1,660	1,528	1,380

[1] respondents are selected for a career period if they have worked all six years, and have worked full-time for the last three years of the period. The first three years may be any combination of full-time or parttime.

Next we address how the population of interest has changed over the years. To do this we compare the first six-year period in the panel with the last six-year period. Table 3.2 shows the part-time history of male and female full-time workers by highest level of education in the period 1990 through 1995. Similar data for the 1996–2001 period are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.2: Percentage of full-time working persons with part-time history in any of the first three years, by sex and educational level (1990–1995)

	Male		Female	
	Part-time in any of the first 3 years	Full-time in all 6 years	Part-time in any of the first 3 years	Full-time in all 6 years
Educational level:				
primary school	2.4	97.6	33.3	66.7
lower secondary	3.4	96.6	29.1	70.9
higher secondary	4.2	95.8	15.9	84.1
higher professional education	9.3	90.7	33.8	66.2
university	20.0	80.0	36.4	63.6
Total	6.0	94.0	23.8	76.2
N	1,477		295	

Table 3.3: Percentage of full-time working persons with part-time history in any of the first three years, by sex and educational level (1996–2001)

	Male		Female	
	Part-time in any of the first 3 years	Full-time in all 6 years	Part-time in any of the first 3 years	Full-time in all 6 years
Educational level:				
primary school	--	100	50.0	50.0
lower secondary	1.4	98.6	35.0	65.0
higher secondary	5.8	94.2	16.7	83.3
higher professional education	7.8	92.2	42.9	57.1
university	16.8	83.2	27.3	72.7
Total	6.4	93.6	28.9	71.1
N	1,149		226	

-- fewer than 30 observations

Tables 3.2 and 3.3 show that the proportion of men working any part-time in the first three years of the micro-career increases with educational level. There has been some slight shifting between 1996 and 2001, but the general distribution

remains the same. In both periods, six percent of the full-time working men has a history of at least one year of part-time employment in his career. There is an increase in the percentage of full-time working women that has a history of part-time work between the first and the last period of more than six percentage points. The distribution of women's part-time work history by educational level is also quite different from that of men. The lowest percentage of women with a history of part-time work can be found among women with higher secondary education. For the period 1996–2001, the highest percentage of full-time working women that has ever worked part-time is found among the women with higher professional education (almost 43 percent).

Table 3.4 gives an overview of the average age for the group that has a history of part-time work as well as the group that only worked full-time. The standard deviation – measuring the dispersion of scores in the sample – is also reported.

*Table 3.4: Average age of full-time workers according to part-time history in any of the first three years, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001**

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	average	std. dev.	average	std. dev
Male				
full-time in all 6 years	40.5	8.7	42.3	8.8
part-time in any of the first 3 years	37.3	10.9	33.3	10.0
N	1,477		1,154	
Female				
full-time in all 6 years	34.9	9.2	39.6	9.5
part-time in any of the first 3 years	35.2	10.4	32.0	8.1
N	295		226	

* The age is measured in the last year.

The table shows that in the first period, men with a history of part-time work are on average younger than men who have worked exclusively full-time. This is not the case for women: The average age of women with and without a history of part-time work is about the same. In the second period, the difference in average age of men with and without a part-time record has increased: the difference was seven years in the 1990–1995 period but has increased to nine years in the 1996–2001 period. The average age difference in the second period has also increased for women. Women with a history of part-time work in the second time period are

on average almost eight years younger than women with no history of part-time work.

3.4 Effects of part-time employment on careers

A person's career period for this research was constructed for persons who have worked without interruption for a six-year period. We further restricted the sample to the respondents who were employed full-time for the last three years of the six-year period. The first three years can be any combination of part-time and or full-time employment. Having described the general characteristics of our research population by their history of part-time work during their career, we now turn to measuring the effects of part-time employment on the socio-economic status, the function level and the hourly wage rate.

Function level

To illustrate the distribution of scores on the occupational function level, three comparisons are used, the first of which shows function level by sex and history of part-time work during the two periods. The second overview of function level score distribution is by part-time history and age. The third comparison is function level by part-time history and highest level of educational attainment.

Table 3.5 illustrates that for both male and female workers, the average function level is higher for workers with a history of part-time work than those who only worked full-time during the 1990–1995 period. For the second period (1996–2001) this is only the case for female workers. Due to the reduction of the average function level for male workers with a part-time history between 1990–1995 and 1996–2001, the difference in function level between male workers with and without a part-time history has all but disappeared. The highest score dispersion is found for men with a history of part-time work. This is true for both periods. Another interesting finding is that the score dispersion for women with a history of part-time work has decreased while their average function level has increased.

*Table 3.5: Function level of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by sex, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Male				
full-time in all 6 years	4.40	1.62	4.50	1.66
part-time in any of the first 3 years	4.96	1.67	4.46	1.80
N	1,454		943	
Female				
full-time in all 6 years	4.28	1.25	4.42	1.44
part-time in any of the first 3 years	4.46	1.47	4.66	1.37
N	294		199	

* Function level is measured in the last year.

From the data in Table 3.6 it is clear that the average function level increases with age for workers with a history of part-time work. Age has, for the sake of presentation, been condensed to two categories. For workers without a history of part-time employment, function level is higher for older workers than for younger workers for the first period only. In 2001, the average function level is equal between young and older workers with a full-time record. The standard deviations show that the amount of score dispersion grew for employees working exclusively full-time between the two periods. Score dispersion decreased for older workers with a history of part-time work over the two periods and increased slightly for younger workers with a history of part-time work.

*Table 3.6: Function level of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by age, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Young (16–44)				
full-time in all 6 years	4.3	1.6	4.5	1.7
part-time in any of the first 3 years	4.7	1.5	4.5	1.6
N	1,197		677	
Old (45–64)				
full-time in all 6 years	4.5	1.5	4.5	1.6
part-time in any of the first 3 years	5.0	1.8	5.2	1.4
N	550		464	

* Age and function level are measured in the last year.

Table 3.7 shows the average function level and standard deviations by highest level of educational attainment. Education has been measured in three categories. The category 'low' comprises primary and lower secondary education. The 'middle' category is higher secondary education. The 'high' category is higher professional education and university. The function level for workers with no history of part-time work remains rather constant over the two periods. For the first period, we see no difference in average function level with respect to the part-time experience for the various educational levels. In the second period, however, we see marked differences in average function levels. Employees with a history of part-time work and tertiary education have a lower function level than employees with tertiary education and no history of part-time work. For workers with a part-time history, this is only true for the workers with the lowest level of education attainment. Employees with middle or high levels of educational attainment with a history of part-time work have seen a decrease in their average function level between the two periods. The score dispersion has remained more or less constant over the two periods except for the workers with a part-time history and the lowest level of education. While their average function level has gone up, their score dispersion has also increased.

*Table 3.7: Function level of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by educational level, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Full-time in all 6 years				
educational level:				
low	3.3	1.5	3.4	1.5
middle	4.2	1.4	4.1	1.5
high	5.8	1.0	5.7	1.1
N	1,592		1,022	
Part-time in any of the first 3 years				
educational level:				
low	3.2	1.1	3.3	1.5
middle	4.1	1.4	3.8	1.5
high	5.8	1.1	5.3	1.3
N	155		117	

* Educational level and function level are measured in the last year.

Socio-economic status

The second dependent variable used to measure a person's position on the labor market is socio-economic status. ISEI measures those characteristics of occupation that convert a person's education into income. In constructing the scale, occupation was scaled so that it captures as much as possible of the indirect influence of education on income. ISEI scores are weighted averages of standardized measures of the income and education of incumbents of each occupation (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996).

Table 3.8 allows for a first impression of the distribution of occupational status scores during the two periods. On the whole, workers having a history of part-time work during the six-year career period, have in both periods a higher occupational status. During the second period, men with a history of part-time work have a slightly lower average occupational status than men who have exclusively worked full-time. Women with a history of part-time work structurally have a higher occupational status than their male counterparts who have always worked full-time. Compared to women who have only worked full-time, the difference in average occupational status for women with a history of part-time work has increased during the second period. Once again we need to stress the fact that the comparison is the status of their (current) full-time

positions. Women who have a history of part-time work have a higher occupational status when they go back to full-time jobs than their counterparts who have worked exclusively in full-time positions.

Table 3.8: Occupational status of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by sex, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001 (averages and standard deviations)[*]

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Male				
full-time in all 6 years	49.9	15.0	50.5	14.9
part-time in any of the first 3 years	53.5	17.2	49.4	14.9
N	1,433		935	
Female				
full-time in all 6 years	51.2	10.9	52.8	12.9
part-time in any of the first 3 years	51.6	13.9	55.2	13.4
N	290		199	

* Occupational status is measured in the last year.

Table 3.9 presents an overview of the average occupational status by highest educational attainment. Because the educational level is strongly correlated with occupational status (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996), it is not surprising to see that for both periods the occupational status increases with the educational attainment. It is surprising that in the first period workers with a history of part-time employment and the lowest level of education, have on average a higher occupational status than employees with no history of part-time work. This is not the case in the second period. The score dispersion for this group is significantly lower as well. For the other educational levels, employees with a middle level of education and a history of part-time work have a significantly lower occupational status than employees who have only worked full-time during the full six-year period. A higher educational level in the first period, shows very little difference in occupational status regarding part-time history. The second period does make a difference for this group. Persons with a history of part-time work have a lower occupational status. This tends to show that part-time experience indeed has a cost in terms of a lower occupational status, even after re-entry in a full-time job although it is not a clear pattern for all levels of education, nor the same pattern for both periods. A change in the number of hours per week usually means a

change of job. Blackwell (2001) refers to part-time jobs being a temporary occupational path deviation in order to better accommodate child rearing. This career deviation would then mean a breach in work experience, which would be accounted for upon return to the original career path in a full-time function.

*Table 3.9: Occupational status of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by educational level, 1990–1995 and 1996–2001 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2001	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Full-time in all 6 years				
educational level:				
low	41.0	12.3	41.5	12.3
middle	47.8	12.8	46.9	13.3
high	63.4	10.7	62.9	10.0
N	1,570		1,015	
Part-time in any of the first 3 years				
educational level:				
low	43.5	12.1	40.2	8.8
middle	44.5	14.8	44.0	11.3
high	63.9	11.5	60.4	12.4
N	156		116	

* Educational level and occupational level are measured in the last year.

Hourly wage

The third dependent variable used in the analysis is gross hourly wage. Table 3.10 shows the average hourly wage and standard deviations by sex for the two periods. Because the SEP only includes retrospective income data, the second time period scrutinized is, contrary to the previous analyses, 1995–2000. Men who have only worked full-time have on average a higher hourly wage rate than men who have a history of part-time work. Score dispersion in hourly wage has decreased for full-timers and increased for men with experience in a part-time job. The average hourly wage for men with a history of part-time work has decreased over the two periods. The situation for the women is similar. This leads us to the conclusion that part-time experience results in a wage penalty later in the career, even after re-entry in a full-time job.

*Table 3.10: Gross hourly wage rate of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by sex, 1990–1995 and 1995–2000 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1995–2000	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Male				
full-time in all 6 years	17.70	7.73	17.80	6.50
part-time in any of the first 3 years	16.60	6.33	16.20	8.19
N	1,289		1,057	
Female				
full-time in all 6 years	14.40	3.63	15.20	5.68
part-time in any of the first 3 years	13.90	4.03	14.10	3.13
N	254		204	

* The gross hourly wage is measured in the last year.

Table 3.11 is an overview of the average hourly wage of full-time young and older workers by their history of part-time work. Older (45–64 years) full-time workers with no history of part-time work have a higher hourly wage than younger full-time workers. This difference is due to both experience and seniority. On average, there is a difference of three euros per hour. Younger workers without part-time experience tend to earn more than their counterparts with part-time experience. However, for the older age group, there is no noticeable difference.

*Table 3.11: Gross hourly wage rate of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by age, 1990–1995 and 1995–2000 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2000	
	mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Young (16–44)				
full-time in all 6 years	16.32	7.08	16.3	5.9
part-time in any of the first 3 years	14.17	4.51	15.87	11.20
N	1,064		816	
Old (45–64)				
full-time in all 6 years	19.30	7.63	19.33	6.92
part-time in any of the first 3 years	19.66	6.79	18.73	12.43
N	479		445	

* The gross hourly wage and age are measured in the last year.

In Table 3.12 we give an overview of average hourly wage by the highest level of educational attainment. The relationship between educational level and hourly wage is strong. The higher one's educational level, the higher one's hourly wage is. There are large differences in hourly wage between workers with a history of part-time work and workers who have exclusively worked full-time. This is the case for both time periods. There were too few observations to include workers with a history of part-time work with the lowest educational level for both periods. Looking at the middle level of educational attainment, we see that in the first period, the average difference in hourly wage is 2.60 euros. In the second period that difference has decreased slightly to 2.40 euros. For full-timers with a college education, a history of part-time work shows a 3.90 euros difference in hourly wage for the first period and 2.60 euros difference for the second period. Workers with a history of part-time work earn less. The score dispersion on the average hourly wage has decreased or stayed about the same for workers with no history of part-time work over the two periods. This is not so for the workers with a history of part-time work. Where the employees with a mid-level of education saw a reduction in score dispersion between the two periods, there has been a large increase in score dispersion for employees with the highest educational level.

*Table 3.12: Gross hourly wage rate of full-time workers according to part-time experience in any of the first three years, by educational level, 1990–1995 and 1995–2000 (averages and standard deviations)**

	1990–1995		1996–2000	
	Mean	std. dev.	mean	std. dev.
Full-time in all 6 years				
educational level:				
Low	14.80	8.4	13.70	3.6
Middle	16.00	5.2	16.30	5.5
High	22.30	8.2	21.50	7.0
N	1,411		1,133	
Part-time in any of the first 3 years				
educational level:				
Low	--	--	--	--
Middle	13.40	4.6	13.90	3.8
High	18.40	5.4	18.90	14.9
N	132		122	

* The gross hourly wage and age are measured in the last year.
-- Fewer than 30 observations.

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have explored the characteristics of the full-time workers with part-time experience. We have also assessed the impact that experience in part-time employment has on the function level, occupation level and the hourly gross wage rate. Table 3.13 presents an overview of the results. The table shows that there are fewer positive effects regarding a history of part-time work in the second period. This is surprising when we consider that more persons were working part-time during the second period. We assumed that negative effects would lessen for this reason. We see, however, that past-time experience has generally become more negative in the second period.

Function level

For the first period, past part-time experience has a positive effect on the function level for both men and women. For the second period, this is only the case for women. The effect has become negative for men in the second period. This is the first supporting evidence that part-time work does not have a lasting negative effect on the careers of women regarding their function level. Part-time history has a positive effect on the function level for both young and older workers in the first period. In the second period, the effect disappears for younger workers but remains positive for older workers. Concerning educational level, for both the first and the second period, we can say that the effect of past part-time experience is generally negative. There are two exceptions: there is no effect for the highest educational level for the first period, and a positive effect for the lowest educational level in the second period.

Table 3.13: Summary of the results

Effect of past part-time compared to full-time in all years	1990–1995	1996–2001
Function level		
Sex		
Male	+	-
Female	+	+
Age		
16-44 years	+	0
45-64 years	+	+
Educational attainment		
Low	-	+
Middle	-	-
High	0	-
Socio-economic status		
Sex		
Male	+	-
Female	+	+
Educational attainment		
Low	+	-
Middle	-	-
High	+	-
Wage		
Sex		
Male	-	-
Female	-	-
Age		
16-44 years	-	-
45-64 years	+	-
Educational attainment		
low	x	x
middle	-	-
High	-	-

+ = positive effect, 0 = no effect and - = negative effect, x = too few observations

Socio-economic status

There is quite a difference regarding the effects of part-time experience on socio-economic status for the two periods. Where all but one indicator were positive in the first period, the reverse is true in the second period. Women who have a history of part-time work have a higher occupational status when they go back to full-time jobs than their counterparts who have worked exclusively in full-time positions and this is true for both periods.

This suggests that women do not suffer lasting setbacks in their socio-economic status due to part-time experience. On the contrary, it seems that they improve their status because of a period of part-time work. This again supports the idea that part-time work does not have a lasting negative effect on the careers of women. Where this was also the case for the men during the first period, it is not so for the second period. Men with a history of part-time work have a slightly lower average occupational status than colleagues who have only worked full-time.

Wage

Wage, however, is another case in itself. On average, workers with no history of part-time work have a higher hourly wage rate than those that have worked part-time. Across educational levels, part-time experience tends to reduce the hourly wage rate. Hence, investment in educational level does not compensate the difference in hourly wage rate for workers with a part-time history. This could mean bad news for women who are currently investing increasingly more years in education, only to find that having experience working part-time will still result in less pay on average in the end. Part-time experience is bad for both younger and older workers.

The overall conclusion so far is that part-time experience results in a wage penalty for both men and women. The effect on function level and occupational status of full-time working people is less clear. The first period showed no lasting negative effect or even a positive effect for male workers and a positive effect for female workers. The second period showed a negative effect on the function level and occupational status for men. Women do quite a bit better upon returning to full-time careers in terms of function level and occupational status. A period of part-time work has a positive effect on their function level and occupational status upon returning to full-time jobs. In the next chapter, we discuss the finding of the multivariate analyses used to explain these differences in function level, occupational status and hourly wage when comparing full-time workers who have or do not have a history of part-time work, while controlling for other background characteristics.

4 How are function level, socio-economic status and hourly wages predicted by part-time work histories?

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we present the multivariate analyses. The research questions to be answered are:

1. How does the occurrence of part-time work in one's work history (micro-career) affect function level, socio-economic status and wage level?
2. And how does it affect the growth in hourly wage and socio-economic status?

To perform the analyses, the longitudinal dataset was transformed into a stacked person-period data file in which for each person a maximum of nine observations containing the micro-careers for the periods 1990–1995 up till 1996–2001 and for the periods 1990–1993 up till 1998–2001. An observation is only included if persons worked for all six or four consecutive years distinguished in each micro-career.

To answer the first research question, we first analyze the data restricted to all people working full-time (35 hours or more) during the last three years of the micro-career. These are the same people as those described in chapter three. In the persons-year dataset, there are about 8,400 men and 1,500 women having this pattern. In those analyses, we measure the effect of part-time experience on the function level, socio-economic status and wage level in the last year of the micro-career (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Employment pattern of the first sample under scrutiny

	Year					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Employment status	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time
						↑ Function level; socio-economic status; wage level

One problem with the above sample is that it is rather selective. Few women, for example, experience a transition from part-time to full-time jobs. For this reason, the first research question is also addressed for all working respondents, whether they work full-time or not. The design is presented in Figure 4.2. Employees are followed for a period of four years, and we estimate how their function level, socio-economic status and wage level in the fourth year is affected by their current employment status (part-time or full-time) and their part-time history in the previous three years. The sample consists of almost 16,000 men and 11,000 women, who have been working for four consecutive years.

Figure 4.2: Employment pattern of the second sample under scrutiny

	Year			
	1	2	3	4
Employment status	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time
				↑ Function level; socio-economic status; wage level

Finally, we answer the second research question on status and wage growth for all working respondents on the basis of the micro-careers depicted in Figure 4.3, where status and wage growth are measured between years four and six. The sample comprises some 9,500 men and 6,100 women who have worked for six consecutive years.

Figure 4.3: Employment pattern of the third sample under scrutiny

	Year					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Employment status	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time	Either part or full-time
				↑		↑
				Socio-economic status; wage level	→ Growth	Socio-economic status; wage level

All models have been estimated for men and women separately and standard errors are corrected for the repeated observations.

4.2 The effect of past part-time work history on function level, socio-economic status and wage level in the six-year micro-careers

We estimate the following statistical models:
1) an OLS regression model to predict the level of (logged) hourly gross wage in last year of the six-year micro-careers (see Figure 4.1):

$$\ln(y_{t=6}) = \alpha_1 + \beta_1 X + \gamma_1 PPT + \varepsilon_1 \quad [1]$$

2) an OLS regression model to predict the level of socio-economic status (*ISEI*) in the last year of the six-year micro-careers:

$$ISE_{t=6} = \alpha_2 + \beta_2 X + \gamma_2 PPT + \varepsilon_2 \quad [2]$$

3) a probit regression model to predict the probability of working in a low-level job (*lf*: function levels 1,2, or 3) in the last year of the six-year micro-careers:

$$pr(lf_{t=6}) = \alpha_3 + \beta_3 X + \gamma_3 PPT + \varepsilon_3 \quad [3]$$

In these equations, X denotes the set of covariates including age (and age squared to control for curvilinearity in the age effect), level of education (up till lower secondary, higher secondary, higher professional, and university), marital status (married or not), children younger than 16 years of age (distinguishing between

no children and the number of children), industry sector (industry/agriculture, construction and transport, trade, services, public sector/education, and healthcare), and dummies for the year of observation. *PPT* is the number of years the respondent has worked part-time in the first three years of each of the micro-careers. α, β, γ are the parameters to be estimated with ε being the error term. We are particularly interested in γ being the effect of past part-time employment on current wage level, socio-economic status and the probability of being employed in a low-level job.

Results are reported in Table 4.1 (hourly wage), Table 4.2 (*ISEI*), and Table 4.3 (low function level job). In Table 4.1 we see a significant, positive effect of age on wage level for both men and women. This effect is stronger for women. By including age squared, we allow for possible curvilinearities in the relation. At a certain point, the positive effect of age levels off as the negative significant effect of age squared indicates: the turning point for men is 63 years and for women 50 years.

Being married has a significant, positive effect on wage level for men. The effect is not significant for women but the sign is negative. With respect to the presence of children in the household, we see that there is no difference between employees with one or no children younger than 16 years of age, but that having more than one child has a positive effect on the wage rate of male workers.

The effect of educational level on wage is also positive and significant for each category for both men and women: the higher the educational level, the higher the wage level. Furthermore, this pattern is stronger for male than for female workers. Concerning the sector of activity, it turns out that when compared to industry, the service sector and the public sector and education pay higher hourly wages.

Turning now to the parameter of interest, we find that the number of years working part-time in the past has a significant and negative effect on the wage level for both men and women. This effect is stronger for men. This means that even three years after a successful re-entry into full-time employment, past years of part-time employment still carry a negative wage effect.

Table 4.1: Results of (logged) hourly wage regression (model 1)

	Male	Female
Age	0.029***	0.040***
age squared (/100)	-0.023***	-0.040***
married	0.058***	-0.038
has children below 16 years of age	-0.026	0.049
number of children below 16 years of age	0.028***	-0.058
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	0.128***	0.134***
higher professional education	0.352***	0.274***
university	0.531***	0.481***
number of years past part-time	-0.043***	-0.030**
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	-0.003	0.079
trade	-0.018	-0.039
services	0.109***	0.074*
public sector/education	0.035**	0.086**
healthcare	-0.009	0.034
Time (ref=1995)		
1996	-0.003	-0.001
1997	-0.009	-0.004
1998	-0.026***	-0.032
1999	-0.029***	-0.032
2000	-0.041***	-0.033
2001	-0.033***	-0.060**
Constant	1.763***	1.581***
Observations	7,334	1,243
R-squared	0.35	0.28

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Table 4.2 shows the results for socio-economic status. In comparison with the model for the hourly wage rate, this model gives a better fit. Age has a significant positive effect on occupational status and this effect is stronger for women than for men. Again, age squared shows a significant negative effect meaning that the original positive effect is not linear and does level off. This leveling-off takes place at a higher speed than in the case of the wage equation: the highest socio-economic status is found at age 51 for males and 44 for females.

Marriage and having (any) children younger than 16 years of age has no significant effect on socio-economic status for both men and women. As in the previous model, the educational level has a positive and significant effect. Again the effect of the educational level is stronger for male workers than for female

workers. The sector of activity seems to be very important for both male and female employees. Employees in trade, services, the public sector and education tend to have a higher socio-economic status than similar employees in the industry. This also holds true for males in the healthcare sector, but the opposite is true for women.

The number of years spent in part-time employment not only has a negative effect on the hourly wage of female workers, but it also affects negatively their socio-economic status when they work in a full-time job. This is different from the findings in the previous chapter. There, part-time history was found to have a positive effect on the socio-economic status in the bivariate analyses. For male workers, however, we find no effect of past part-time employment on the socio-economic status.

Table 4.2: Results of ISE regression (model 2)

	Male	Female
Age	0.512**	0.765**
age squared (/100)	-0.502*	-0.878**
married	0.641	-0.501
has children below 16 years of age	-0.434	0.837
number of children below 16 years of age	0.038	-1.280
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	6.300***	2.898**
higher professional education	18.998***	11.561***
university	23.346***	20.044***
number of years past part-time	-0.128	-1.043**
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	0.745	1.836
trade	4.931***	2.311*
services	9.830***	6.391***
public sector/education	7.171***	10.033***
healthcare	4.516***	-3.888**
Time (ref=1995)		
1996	0.797***	1.195*
1997	0.119	1.396*
1998	0.440	0.163
1999	0.450	0.699
2000	-0.280	-0.060
2001	-0.895*	0.532
Constant	24.211***	29.095***
Observations	8,300	1,452
R-squared	0.39	0.43

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

The last model from the first set of multivariate analyses is presented in Table 4.3. The model estimates the probability (probit model) that one would 'end up' working in a low function level job, i.e. function level 1, 2 or 3. A significant positive effect for age was found for men. The effect means that the probability of working in a low function level job increases up to the age of 36 and decreases thereafter. An age effect was not found to be significant in the case of females. For both men and women, being married or having children younger than 16 years of age has no significant effect on one's chances of having a low function level job.

Just like in the case of wage and socio-economic status, the educational level has a strong impact. The higher the educational level, the less likely both men and

women are to work in low function level jobs. Again, the effect is stronger for men than for women for all levels of education. This means that men are more able to 'cash-in' on their educational investments than women are.

Concerning the sector of employment with industry/agriculture as reference category, a significant negative effect was found for the service sector, the public sector and education and the healthcare sector for both men and women. Working in these sectors decreases one's chance of having a low function level job.

A history of part-time work prior to the entry in full-time employment increases significantly the probability that one will work in a low function level job, even after three years of full-time employment. This effect is stronger for women than for men.

Table 4.3: Probability of low function level job (model 3)

	Male	Female
Age	0.094*	-0.121
age squared (/100)	-0.132**	0.141
married	-0.049	0.009
has children below 16 years of age	-0.003	0.397
number of children below 16 years of age	-0.026	-0.332
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	-1.151***	-1.130***
higher professional education	-2.944***	-2.811***
university	-3.355***	-2.083**
number of years past part-time	0.180*	0.318**
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	0.225	-0.664
trade	-0.244	-0.136
services	-0.972***	-1.962***
public sector/education	-0.995***	-2.549***
healthcare	-0.581**	-1.422***
Time (ref=1995)		
1996	-0.088	-0.181
1997	0.107*	-0.163
1998	-0.040	0.188
1999	0.066	-0.110
2000	0.064	0.235
2001	0.199*	0.303
Constant	-1.136	2.530
Observations	8,408	1,466
R-squared	0.19	0.24

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

4.3 The effect of past part-time work history on function level, socio-economic status and wage level in the four-year micro-careers

The models presented in the earlier section are probably sensitive to a certain degree of selectivity caused by: (1) female workers tend to work part-time and continue doing so; (2) male workers rarely work part-time and make fewer transitions between full-time and part-time work. Therefore, a second set of models has been estimated on a sample including all respondents that have worked for a period of four years regardless of whether that has been part-time or full-time. This second set focuses on the question of whether being employed part-time (*PT*) or having a past history of part-time work (*PPT*) has an effect on the wage level, ISEI and the probability of being in a low level job.

The models for the level of the dependent variables are written as follows:

$$\ln(y_{t=4}) = \alpha_4 + \beta_4 X + \lambda_4 PT + \gamma_4 PPT + \varepsilon_4 \quad [4]$$

$$ISE_{t=4} = \alpha_5 + \beta_5 X + \lambda_5 PT + \gamma_5 PPT + \varepsilon_5 \quad [5]$$

$$pr(lf_{t=4}) = \alpha_6 + \beta_6 X + \lambda_6 PT + \gamma_6 PPT + \varepsilon_6 \quad [6]$$

where the covariates (X) are the same as in the previous models, PT indicates whether the person is currently employed in a part-time job and PPT is the number of years the person was employed part-time in the three previous years.

Table 4.4 presents the results of the wage regression. Age has a significant positive effect on wage level. This effect levels off, however, such that the maximum wage for males in reached at age 52 and at age 45 for females. Being married shows a significant effect on wage level for both sexes but with opposite signs. Marriage has a positive effect on wage level for men. Unmarried women, however, tend to have higher wages than married women. These opposite signs for the sexes are also found for having children younger than 16 years of age and the number of children younger than 16 years of age. The conclusion can be that married men earn more than single men and will earn even more when the number of children increases, which suggests a typical 'male breadwinner' pattern.

The higher the education, the stronger the positive effect on wage level for both men and women and these effects are significant. Once again, we can see that the positive effect of a higher secondary level of education is stronger for women than for men. We could conclude that the private return on education is higher for male workers compared to female workers, however, it is possible that this wage differential is caused by the fact that female workers have, on average less experience on the labor market.

Concerning the sector of industry, employment in the construction and transportation sector has a significant positive effect on wage level for women. Working in wholesale and retail trade has a significant negative effect on wage level for both men and women. Working in the service sector has a significant positive effect on wage level for men. Working for the public and educational sector has a significant positive effect on wage level for men and women. This effect is stronger for women. Compared to the industry, working in healthcare has

a significant negative effect on wage level of full-time working men and a significant positive effect on the wage level of women.

Working part-time has a significant positive effect on wage level and this effect is slightly stronger for women than for men. This has already been found in previous research using Dutch panel data (Dekker et al. 2000). A possible explanation is that because of these higher wages, some Dutch employees can 'afford' working part-time, while maintaining an acceptable level of living. A history of part-time work, however has a significant negative effect on wage level for both sexes. This means that full-time working employees with a history of part-time employment earn less. Part-time working male employees also earn less when they have worked part-time in the three previous years (0.128-3*0.058=-0.046). Part-time working females earn lower wages when they have been working part-time in two or three of years in the past (0.134-2*0.071=-0.008). This evidence suggests a dual part-time labor market with some employees on high wage jobs which are mobile towards full-time jobs and back, and others who remain in low paid part-time jobs (Tilly 1992).

Table 4.4: Results of wage regression (model 4)

	Male	Female
Age	0.049***	0.049***
age squared (/100)	-0.047***	-0.055***
married	0.081***	-0.032**
has children below 16 years of age	-0.035*	0.005
number of children below 16 years of age	0.019**	-0.013
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	0.138***	0.150***
higher professional education	0.357***	0.291***
university	0.505***	0.481***
working part-time	0.128***	0.134***
number of years past part-time	-0.058***	-0.071***
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	-0.007	0.081**
trade	-0.068***	-0.080***
services	0.064***	0.009
public sector/education	0.029*	0.100***
healthcare	-0.052**	0.046*
Time (ref=1993)		
1994	-0.047***	-0.050***
1995	-0.061***	-0.115***
1996	-0.073***	-0.090***
1997	-0.066***	-0.049***
1998	-0.075***	-0.087***
1999	-0.072***	-0.057***
2000	-0.094***	-0.047***
2001	-0.099***	-0.066***
Constant	1.446***	1.500***
Observations	1,3550	9,574
R-squared	0.32	0.18

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

In Table 4.5 the results of the socio-economic status multivariate regression are presented. The leveling-off effect with age in this model is consistent with that in the previous one. The highest socio-economic status is reached at the age of 52 for male workers en at the age of 45 for female workers. Neither marriage nor the number of children younger than 16 years of age has a significant effect on the socio-economic status. Educational attainment shows a strong linear relation with

occupational status. Again, this effect tends to be stronger for men than for women.

Concerning the sector of employment with industry and agriculture as reference category, construction and transportation show a significant positive effect for women but no significant effect for men. All the other sectors have a significant positive effect on the level of occupational status for men and women.

The current part-time variable indicates that, contrary to the wage regression, working part-time leads to a lower socio-economic status, especially for men. This would indicate that jobs with a high socio-economic status cannot be carried out in a part-time capacity. This negative effect is further exacerbated by a history of part-time employment.

Table 4.5: Results of ISE regression (model 5)

	Male	Female
Age	0.463***	0.650***
age squared (/100)	-0.441**	-0.718***
married	0.435	-0.553
has children below 16 years of age	-0.036	0.820
number of children below 16 years of age	-0.036	-0.576
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	5.988***	4.119***
higher professional education	18.546***	13.855***
university	23.805***	21.887***
working part-time	-2.345***	-1.068***
number of years past part-time	-0.127	-0.605***
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	0.538	3.700***
trade	4.797***	4.176***
services	10.116***	6.581***
public sector/education	8.502***	11.156***
healthcare	3.579***	-2.889***
Time (ref=1993)		
1994	-0.664***	-0.527**
1995	-1.000***	-1.033***
1996	-0.310	-0.621**
1997	-0.918***	0.023
1998	-0.753**	-0.178
1999	-0.814**	-0.084
2000	-1.301***	-0.954**
2001	-1.701***	-0.320
Constant	26.198***	28.921***
Observations	1,5441	1,0628
R-squared	0.42	0.44

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Table 4.6 displays the results of a probit model that estimates the probability of being employed in a low function job. The age effect for the women tells us that the chance of being employed in a low function job decreases with age. After age 40, however, this probability increases again. Neither the marital status nor the number of children affects the odds of being employed in a low level job. Educational attainment has a significant negative effect on one's chances of working in a low function job. Women with a higher secondary education have a

lower probability of working in a low function job than men with a higher secondary education. At this level of education, women seem more capable of redeeming their educational investments on the job market. For employees with higher professional education and or a university degree the effect is stronger for men than for women.

In regard to the sector of employment, the construction and transportation sector remains a good place for women to be employed. It shows a significant negative effect on their probability of a low level job. This effect is the opposite for men. Services, the public sector, education and healthcare all show a significant negative effect on one's chances of employment in a low level job.

Working part-time has a significant positive effect on the probability of working in a low function job for both men and women. For men this effect is stronger than for women. A history of part-time work also shows a significant positive effect, but this time the effect is stronger for women. This shows that men working part-time have a higher probability of working in a low function level job, but women seem less capable of recovery after a history of part-time work upon returning to a full-time function.

Table 4.6: Probability of low level job (model 6)

	Male	Female
Age	0.027	-0.150***
age squared (/100)	-0.058*	0.189***
married	-0.116	0.024
has children below 16 years of age	-0.087	0.102
number of children below 16 years of age	0.015	-0.017
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	-1.154***	-1.213***
higher professional education	-2.925***	-2.614***
university	-3.616***	-2.436***
working part-time	0.727***	0.237**
number of years past part-time	0.197***	0.258***
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	0.193*	-0.590**
trade	-0.164	0.115
services	-1.010***	-1.024***
public sector/education	-1.161***	-2.258***
healthcare	-0.692***	-2.348***
Time (ref=1993)		
1994	-0.023	-0.048
1995	0.024	-0.006
1996	-0.086	-0.034
1997	0.083	-0.239**
1998	0.020	-0.197**
1999	0.047	-0.140
2000	0.016	0.113
2001	0.143	-0.117
Constant	0.414	2.996***
Observations	1,5691	1,1099
R-squared	0.21	0.28

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

4.4 The effect of past part-time work history on the growth in hourly wage and socio-economic status

The last set of models aims at answering the second research question of this study. The question is whether or not part-time employment in the past or currently being employed in a part-time job has an effect of the level of wage *growth* or on the level of change in socio-economic status. The idea behind these models is to attain insight into the ability to recover from initial set-backs in wage or socio-economic status. If growth is higher upon returning to a full-time position, this means that the initial scarring can be compensated after some period of time. For the *growth* models, we again look at six-year periods, whereby respondents have been employed all years. We measure the level of change between year 4 and year 6 (see Figure 4.3). We are now not only able to test whether part-time experience results in cross-sectional difference in wage and employment status, but also whether these differences persist over time.

The growth models are specified as follows:

$$\ln\left(y_{t=6}/y_{t=4}\right)=\alpha_7+\beta_7 X+\delta_7\ln(y_{t=4})+\lambda_7 PT+\gamma_7 PPT+\varepsilon_7 \quad [7]$$

$$(ISE_{t=6}-ISE_{t=4})=\alpha_8+\beta_8 X+\delta_8 ISE_{t=4}+\lambda_8 PT+\gamma_8 PPT+\varepsilon_8 \quad [8]$$

where the set of covariates X is the same as in the previous analyses. We now include the wage level and socio-economic position in order to control for bottom and ceiling effects. Note that we did not estimate models for change in the function level. The scale only counts 7 levels and for this reason does not allow for sufficient variation.

Wage growth

Table 4.7 shows the growth in wage between year four and six in the micro-career. Age has a significant positive effect on wage growth for women. This effect levels off at the age of 45. The men show no effect of age on their wage growth. Being married results in a significant positive effect on the wage growth of men. This supports earlier findings showing that men show an increase in wage when married due to an increase in responsibility towards their spouse (Becker, 1985).

Educational attainment has a strong linear relation with wage growth. The higher the educational level, the stronger the wage growth and this effect is stronger for women than for men. While investment in education was found to yield lower wage returns for women than for male, it now turns out that this difference declines over the years, due to the higher growth rate of female wages.

In regard to the sector of employment we see that being employed in the construction and transportation sector, the public sector and education or in health services has a significant positive effect on the wage growth for women. Employment in the service sector has a significant positive effect on wage growth for men.

Working part-time results in a lower growth rate of wage for both men and women. However, this effect is stronger for men than for women. So while part-time workers were found to enjoy a higher wage, in the medium term, their prospect for wage increase are poor. A history of part-time work has a negative effect on the wage growth of female workers. For male workers, the effect is found to be positive, which means that some catching up is taking place (remember from Table 4.4 that past part-time employment had a negative effect on the wage level).

Change of socio-economic status

In Table 4.8 we report the results from the last model estimated. It is concerned with the change in socio-economic status between year four and year six in the micro-career. Age has a significant negative effect on the growth in occupational status for men. No age effect is found for women. Neither marriage nor the presence of young children has a significant effect on the change to a higher occupational status. Educational attainment shows a strong linear effect for both men and women. The higher the level of educational attainment, the higher the occupational status will become, an effect which is stronger for men than for women. This is consistent with our findings up to now.

Table 4.7: Wage growth between t=4 and t=6 (model 7)

	Males	Females
Age	0.002	0.015**
age squared (/100)	0.000	-0.017**
married	0.033***	-0.007
has children younger than 16 years of age	0.004	0.019
number of children younger than 16 years of age	0.001	-0.004
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	0.055***	0.082***
higher professional education	0.146***	0.171***
university	0.196***	0.288***
ln(hourly wage)	-0.366***	-0.584***
working part-time	-0.103***	-0.070***
number of years past part-time	0.017**	-0.012*
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	-0.010	0.060**
trade	-0.017	-0.031
services	0.049***	0.009
public sector/education	0.013	0.055**
healthcare	-0.011	0.034*
Time (ref=1993-1995)		
1994-1996	0.009	0.035**
1995-1997	0.024**	0.075***
1996-1998	0.023**	0.056***
1997-1999	0.021**	0.067***
1998-2000	0.035***	0.097***
1999-2001	0.001	0.070***
Constant	0.850***	1.137***
Observations	8,765	5,768
R-squared	0.19	0.30

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

Concerning the sector of employment, with agriculture and industry as reference category, we see that again, working in the construction and transportation sector shows a significant positive effect on the change in occupational status for women. Trade, services, public sector and education all show significant positive effects on the upward mobility in terms of occupational status for both men and women. Healthcare is a bit different. We can see that in terms of occupational status, there is a significant positive effect for men and a negative albeit insignificant effect for women.

Working part-time shows no significant effect on a change in occupational status for men and women. Given that part-timers have a lower socio-economic status,

we can conclude that because there is no catching up, this will remain to be the case. Furthermore, a history of part-time does have a significant negative effect on socio-economic mobility. However, this effect is not significant for male workers.

Table 4.8: Change in ISE level between t=4 and t=6 (model 8)

	Males	Females
Age	-0.144*	0.006
age squared (/100)	0.138	-0.028
married	0.409	-0.021
has children younger than 16 years of age	-0.533	0.011
number of children younger than 16 years of age	0.179	-0.038
Educational level (reference=primary school+ lower secondary school)		
higher secondary school	1.749***	0.804***
higher professional education	4.601***	3.184***
university	5.372***	4.947***
ISE	-0.254***	-0.250***
working part-time	0.301	0.094
number of years past part-time	-0.049	-0.291**
Sector of activity (reference=industry/agriculture)		
construction/transport	0.141	0.947*
trade	1.100***	0.929**
services	1.857***	1.135***
public sector/education	1.724***	2.663***
healthcare	1.787***	-0.229
Time (ref=1993-1995)		
1994-1996	-0.290	0.668**
1995-1997	-0.407	0.860**
1996-1998	-0.226	0.521*
1997-1999	0.076	0.316
1998-2000	0.384	0.384
1999-2001	0.187	0.873**
Constant	13.279***	11.073***
Observations	9,490	6,105
R-squared	0.12	0.12

* significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have applied multivariate analysis techniques to measure the effect of part-time work in one's work history (micro-career) on function level, socio-economic status and wage level. Furthermore, we have addressed the question whether or not such differences are only temporary and some catching up

is taking place. The first question we addressed by looking at all workers while looking at those workers who have successfully realized the transition between part-time and full-time employment in particular. The results are summarized in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Summary of the results

	Men		Women	
	Current part-time	Past part-time	Current part-time	Past part-time
Models for the full-time working respondents				
Wage level	n.i.	–	n.i.	–
ISE	n.i.	n.s.	n.i.	–
Probability of low function	n.i.	+	n.i.	+
Models for all working respondents				
Wage level	+	–	+	–
ISE	–	n.s.	–	–
Probability of low function	+	+	+	+
Growth models				
Wage growth	–	+	–	–
Socio-economic mobility	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	–

n.i.: not included, n.s.: not significant

As far as the effect of part-time on wage is concerned we conclude that part-time experience implies a cost in terms of lower wages for both male and female workers, even after a successful transition to a full-time job. Current employment in a part-time job, results in a higher hourly wage rate. However, this positive effect becomes negative when one has also worked part-time in previous years. We take this as evidence suggesting that the labor market is a dual one with some employees in high wage jobs who are mobile into full-time jobs and back, and others who remain in low paid part-time jobs. Note also that while part-timers do enjoy a higher wage, in the medium term, their prospects for wage increase are poor. Despite the fact that past part-time experience has a negative effect on the wage rate, we found a positive effect on wage growth for male workers, which means that the set back in wage is only temporary and that they are able to catch up. The bad news is that female workers are unable to compensate their setbacks regarding wage penalties.

Similar stories can be told with respect to the socio-economic status and the function level. Female workers whether they currently work part-time or have worked part-time in the past, have a lower occupational status and work in lower

level functions. Their past part-time employment also has a negative effect on their socio-economic position. The evidence suggests that they are unable to make up for their lower position, even after a successful transition into a full-time job. For male workers, past part-time employment does affect the probability that one is working in a low level job, but not the socio-economic position. Current part-time employment has negative consequences for both.

5 Conclusions and policy implications

A majority of Dutch working women and a growing minority of Dutch working men are working part-time. This sizeable group of part-timers has even more growth potential as can be seen by the results of the most recent OSA Labour Supply Panel (2002) in which among the persons currently working full-time, another 13,5 percent of the men and 6 percent of the women state a preference for working *fewer* hours than they currently do. This, coupled with the growing number of women entering the labor market (again a majority of whom we can assume will take up part-time jobs) suggests that we have not yet reached the peak in part-time work in the Netherlands. This fits in nicely with social and economic policy aimed at adapting the current labor market into a transitional labor market (cf. Schmid, 1998). A transition to or from part-time work is an excellent means of adding flexibility to labor markets. The role of part-time work within a transitional labor market is integral; it allows for a combination of paid labor and caring tasks. This is the first and foremost reason for its explosive growth as a phenomenon on the Dutch labor market. It also enables working men and women to make smooth transitions to and from the domains of education and care, transitions that will become increasingly important in the evolution towards the kind of labor market flexible and resilient enough to adeptly respond to economic swings. The very necessity to make these modifications on the labor market is not only due to the recent emphasis on the knowledge-based economy, but also because of demographic changes. The demographic developments of a lower fertility rate and a higher life expectancy have resulted in an aging society. The Netherlands is not unique in this respect; it is faced by Europe as a whole. This aging society is dependent on a labor market that is characterized by a high level of participation and strong economic performance to enable and ensure the continuity of the Dutch welfare state. Part-time work appears to be an excellent solution for keeping more people working longer, which is exactly the mandate from the European Commission to all of its Member States[12].

The Netherlands breaks all records as a part-time working nation with prospects for even further growth. The enormous diffusion of part-time work in the

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[12] The European Council set targets for employment population ratios (number of active labor market participants as a percentage of the total working age population) at the Lisbon top in 2000. The EU target for 2010 is 70 percent, or 7 out of 10 persons of working age (15-64) should indeed be actively participating on the labor market. The current EU average is 51 percent (OECD, 2003).

Netherlands certainly has advantages, but are there unanticipated and unintentional repercussions on the micro-level? Just what are the consequences for individual careers set in motion by a period of part-time work? To answer these crucial questions, research on panel data is necessary as it enables the tracking of individuals through time. The aim of this study is to establish and isolate the effects of past part-time work on the upward mobility of careers. We use data from the Dutch Socio-Economic Panel (SEP) to follow individual careers using three vital measures of stratification: income, socio-economic status and function level.

The multivariate analyses show that part-time experience results in a wage penalty for both men and women. This effect is stronger for men. Even three years after a successful re-entry into full-time employment, past years of part-time employment still have a negative impact on wages. But men show a positive wage growth, which means that they are able to recover after the initial setback. Women, however, are not so fortunate. They do not recover from the wage penalties suffered due to past part-time work. Education has a positive effect on wages, both for men and women, and this effect increases with each educational level. The effect of a higher professional education or a university degree on wage growth for women is stronger than for men. In relation to wage growth, women do better career-wise when employed in the construction and transportation sector, the public sector and education and in the healthcare sector. Men show a higher capacity for wage growth in the service sector. Being married has a negative effect on women's earnings and a positive effect on the wages of men as well as their wage growth.

Workers with a history of part-time work have a higher probability of working in low function level jobs and this (again) is more likely for women than for men. Being employed in the service sector, the public sector and education as well as healthcare sector makes it less probable that a person will have a low function level job. Men that work part-time have a higher probability of a low function level job. But women have less chance of making a good recovery upon returning to a full-time job than men do. This again, points to a structural gender bias. We also find differences regarding the sector of activity. The construction and transportation sectors show a significant negative effect on a woman's probability of having a low level job. The opposite is true for men.

Regarding the effects of past part-time work on the socio-economic status, results show that it is negative for women. Women are unable to recover the loss in socio-economic status due to a history of part-time work after successful re-entry in a full-time position. We find no evidence supporting the occupational recovery found by Blackwell (2001) in her research on UK panel data. The positive effect of age on socio-economic status levels off and then becomes negative. This occurs earlier for women than for men. The highest socio-economic status is found at age 51 for males and 44 for females. This means that men continue climbing in their career for a longer period. Women, on average have shorter careers and thus also have less time to accelerate in their upward mobility. Investments in educational attainment have positive effects for both men and women on socio-economic status. These effects are stronger for men than they are for women.

We find some evidence supporting Tilly's (1996) theory of a segmented labor market for part-time jobs, where the primary jobs, allow for easy transitions from full-time to part-time work and back again, and secondary jobs do not. It is of course possible that the negative effects that part-time work has on careers in terms of wage penalties, socio-economic status and function level do not weigh up to the positive effects that part-time work has on individuals. These are of course choices to be made by individuals. It is also possible that because of the increase in labor participation by women, that on a household level, some families are financially better off than they were before women participated on the labor market and thus are willing to accept the negative effects that part-time work has on careers. A household-based analysis would complement this study and answer this kind of question. Results show support for the explanation that some households can 'afford' the negative effects of part-time work while maintaining an acceptable standard of living. Working part-time has a significant positive effect on wage level and this effect is slightly stronger for women than for men as was found in earlier research using Dutch panel data (Dekker et al, 2000). Upon returning to full-time jobs, the past part-time history proves to have a lasting, negative effect on wages. Even if the negative effects are small, possibly even negligible for some households, a segmented labor market means economic barriers for others. How many others will suffer the economic consequences of this segmentation and how strong will these effects be? The very magnitude of the phenomenon merits attention.

In the move towards a transitional economy, the Netherlands is relying heavily on part-time work. The results of this research provide evidence that part-time work has a lasting negative effect on the upward mobility of individual careers. This is not good news for the many Dutch workers who have opted for working part-time. Furthermore, there appears to be a definite gender bias regarding the effects of past part-time work on careers. We find evidence that women are less capable of recovering from the repercussions of part-time work even after a successful re-entry into full-time employment. This should be a warning for policy makers that even though many successes have been booked concerning the legal position of part-time work on the Dutch labor market, equal rights do not necessarily translate to equal opportunity. The lasting, negative effects that we encounter on the micro-level are compounded by the vast numbers of part-time workers and potential part-time workers on the Dutch labor market. The effects on individual careers are in this way magnified in their effect on the macro-level.

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